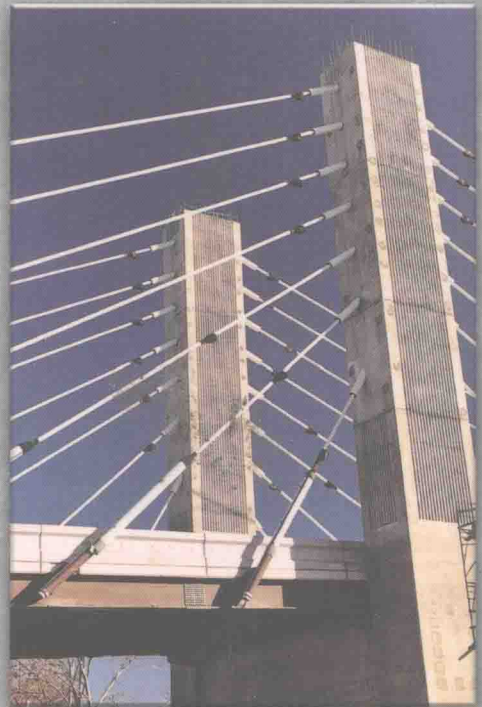
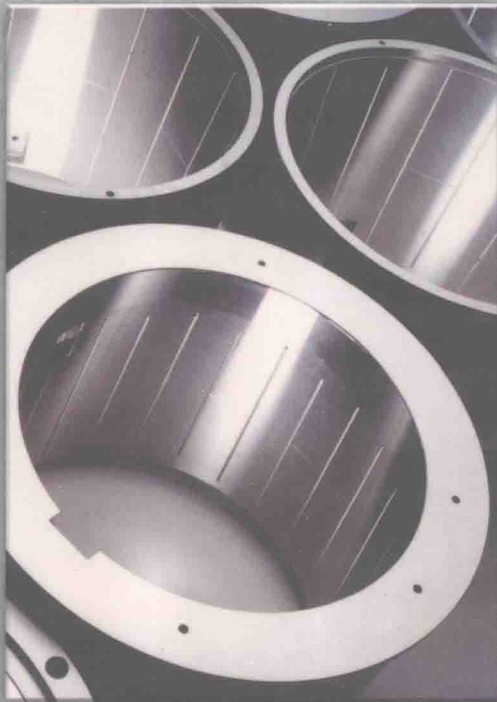


INTERNATIONAL EDITION

Statics *and* Strength *of* Materials

FIFTH EDITION



H.W. Morrow • Robert P. Kokernak

Statics and Strength of Materials

Fifth Edition

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*Dedicated to the memory
of
John F. Kokernak*

About the Cover

(Left) The bearings shown are approximately 44 in. (1.1 m) in diameter, are made of medium carbon alloy steel, and are used on *rolling mills* which produce steel such as plate, strip, foil, and rod for use in a variety of manufactured products. Despite their large size, these bearings must satisfy very exacting standards: the maximum variation in wall thickness is typically less than 0.00012 in. (3 microns), and the outside of each bearing is polished so that surface irregularities do not exceed one millionth of an inch (0.025 microns). To achieve such precision, the material properties of steel must be carefully matched to the manufacturing processes used to produce these bearings. (*Courtesy of Morgan Construction Company, Worcester, Massachusetts, www.morganco.com.*)

(Right) On modern bridges of *cable-stayed* design, weights of both the roadway and its vehicular traffic are carried by steel cables which connect the bridge deck to massive supporting towers. Because the forces in these cables pull downward and sideways on the towers, the cable tensions must be adjusted so that side-to-side forces are in equilibrium. The 8-in. diameter cables shown here are protected by polyethylene tubes, and support a 650-ft bridge deck on four towers ranging in height from 110 to 140 feet.

Preface

The objective of this fifth edition is to cover statics and strength of materials at an elementary level, where calculus is not required. However, for instructors who use the text to teach in accredited programs in the technologies, sections requiring calculus are included. Those sections relate to centroids and moments of inertia of plane areas, and deflection of beams by integration. Marked with an asterisk, this material can be omitted without a loss of continuity.

Statics and Strength of Materials is written for students enrolled in the industrial technology or engineering technology curriculum, and in university-level courses for nonengineering majors, such as architecture. It is also useful for self-study and can serve as a reference for courses in materials, materials testing, machine design, and structural design.

This edition contains several new features, including a number of Application Sidebars scattered throughout the book. These pages describe real-life applications related to topics discussed in the text and serve to emphasize the fact that statics and strength of materials are not purely academic subjects. We have also included a new section on residential design utilizing tabulated values. Many students are aware of the fact that residential construction practices are influenced primarily by local or federal building codes. However, those same students are often unaware of any limitations within the code tables and cannot always make a connection between such tabulated values and the theoretical values obtained using traditional methods. We hope that the new material will help bridge this gap. Also, due to the increasing use of machine-graded lumber, a table of machine-stress rated (MSR) and machine-evaluated lumber (MEL) designations and properties has been added to the Appendix.

Aside from this additional material, the general plan of the book is unchanged. Care has been taken to present the various topics with clarity in a simple and direct fashion and to avoid information overload. To that end, more than 200 examples illustrate the principles involved.

Chapters 1 through 9 provide coverage of statics, while strength of materials is covered in Chapters 10 through 18. The chapters on statics begin with a review of basic

mathematics. Trigonometric formulas and the component method are employed to solve concurrent force problems. A discussion of the resultant and equilibrium of nonconcurrent forces follows, with special emphasis on the theorem of moments. Then the force analysis of structures and machines, and concurrent and nonconcurrent force systems in space is presented. The chapters on statics conclude with friction, centers of gravity, centroids, and moment of inertia of areas. The chapters on strength of materials begin with the study of stress and strain in axially loaded members. This is followed by discussions of shear stresses and strains in torsion members, bending and deflection of beams, combined stress using Mohr's circle, columns, and structural connections.

The text includes more than 950 problems at various levels of difficulty for the student. Both the U.S. customary system of units and the international system of units (SI) are introduced and applied equally in the problems and examples.

The majority of the material in this book was originally written by H. W. Morrow, who prepared two preliminary editions for use at Nassau (NY) Community College from 1976 to 1979. These were followed by three editions, published in 1981, 1993 and 1998, by Prentice Hall. Subsequent editions represent a joint collaboration between Mr. Morrow and R. P. Kokernak of Fitchburg (MA) State College.

We would like to thank the following individuals for the help they provided with various aspects of the fifth edition: Neil Gow of Morgan Contraction Company; David Tourigny of Marceau's Industrial Belt Services; and Christine Woollett of The Royal Society. Special thanks to the people at the RANOR Corporation—John Duffy, Octave “Tibby” Thiboutot, and Shawn Ballou—whose contributions were numerous and invaluable. Finally, for their continued inspiration as this manuscript was being prepared, thanks to Amelia Kokernak, Abigail Smith, and Charlotte Kokernak, along with their grandmother, Jean, who helped get the whole project started many years ago.

We would also like to acknowledge the reviewers of this text: Dr. Eduardo De Santiago, Illinois Institute of Technology; Charles Drake, Ferris State University; and James Scudder, Rochester Institute of Technology.

Users of the text are encouraged to write the authors with suggestions for improvements in future editions. Such material may be sent via e-mail to rkokernak@fsc.edu or mailed directly to this address: Robert P. Kokernak, Department of Industrial Technology, Fitchburg State College, 160 Pearl Street, Fitchburg, MA 01420.

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Contents

Chapter 1	BASIC CONCEPTS	1
	1.1 Introduction, 1	
	1.2 Fundamental Quantities: Units, 2	
	1.3 SI Style and Usage, 3	
	1.4 Conversion of Units, 4	
	1.5 Numerical Computations, 5	
	1.6 Trigonometric Functions, 8	
	1.7 Trigonometric Formulas, 17	
	1.8 Linear Equations and Determinants, 24	
Chapter 2	RESULTANT OF CONCURRENT FORCES IN A PLANE	41
	2.1 Introduction, 41	
	2.2 Graphical Representation of Forces: Vectors, 42	
	2.3 Resultant of Two Concurrent Forces: Vectors, 42	
	2.4 Resultant of Three or More Concurrent Forces, 49	
	2.5 Components of a Force Vector, 52	
	2.6 Resultant of Concurrent Forces by Rectangular Components, 57	
	2.7 Difference of Two Forces: Vector Differences, 62	
Chapter 3	EQUILIBRIUM OF CONCURRENT FORCES IN A PLANE	66
	3.1 Conditions for Equilibrium, 66	
	3.2 Action and Reaction, 67	
	3.3 Space Diagram, Free-Body Diagram, 68	
	3.4 Construction of a Free-Body Diagram, 68	
	3.5 Three Concurrent Forces in Equilibrium, 77	
	3.6 Four or More Forces in Equilibrium, 85	
	3.7 Equilibrium by Rectangular Component Method, 86	

Chapter 4	RESULTANT OF NONCONCURRENT FORCES IN A PLANE	95
4.1	Introduction, 95	
4.2	Transmissibility, 96	
4.3	Moment of a Force, 96	
4.4	Theorem of Moments, 99	
4.5	Resultant of Parallel Forces, 106	
4.6	Resultant of Nonparallel Forces, 109	
4.7	Moment of a Couple, 113	
4.8	Resolution of a Force into a Force and Couple, 115	
4.9	Resultant of Distributed Loading, 119	
Chapter 5	EQUILIBRIUM OF A RIGID BODY	123
5.1	Introduction, 123	
5.2	Support Conditions for Bodies in a Plane, 124	
5.3	Construction of Free-Body Diagrams, 126	
5.4	Equations for Equilibrium of a Rigid Body, 129	
5.5	Equilibrium of a Two-Force Body, 144	
5.6	Equilibrium of a Three-Force Body, 144	
5.7	Statical Determinacy and Constraint of a Rigid Body, 148	
Chapter 6	FORCE ANALYSIS OF STRUCTURES AND MACHINES	153
6.1	Introduction, 153	
6.2	Simple Plane Trusses, 154	
6.3	Members Under Special Loading, 159	
6.4	Method of Joints, 159	
6.5	Graphical Method of Joints, 174	
6.6	Method of Sections, 174	
6.7	Frames and Machines, 181	
Chapter 7	FORCES IN SPACE	200
7.1	Introduction, 200	
7.2	Components of a Force in Space, 201	
7.3	Resultant of Concurrent Forces in Space, 204	
7.4	Equilibrium of a Concurrent Force System in Space, 208	
7.5	Moment of a Force About an Axis, 216	
7.6	Resultant of Parallel Forces in Space, 217	
7.7	Support Conditions for Bodies in Space, 219	
7.8	Equilibrium of a Rigid Body in Space, 221	

Chapter 8 FRICTION 232

- 8.1 Introduction, 232
- 8.2 Dry or Coulomb Friction, 233
- 8.3 Angle of Friction, 236
- 8.4 Wedges, 243
- 8.5 Square-Threaded Screws: Screw Jacks, 244
- 8.6 Axle Friction: Journal Bearings, 249
- 8.7 Special Applications, 252
- 8.8 Rolling Resistance, 256

Chapter 9 CENTER OF GRAVITY, CENTROIDS, AND MOMENTS OF INERTIA OF AREAS 261

- 9.1 Introduction, 261
- 9.2 Center of Gravity, 262
- 9.3 Centroid of a Plane Area, 263
- 9.4 Centroids by Inspection, 266
- 9.5 Centroids of Composite Areas, 267
- 9.6 Centroids of Structural Cross Sections, 272
- 9.7 Moment of Inertia of a Plane Area, 283
- 9.8 Parallel-Axis Theorem, 287
- 9.9 Moment of Inertia of Composite Areas, 288
- 9.10 Polar Moment of Inertia, 304
- 9.11 Radius of Gyration, 305
- *9.12 Determination of Centroids by Integration, 306
- *9.13 Determination of Moments of Inertia by Integration, 311

Chapter 10 INTERNAL REACTIONS; STRESS FOR AXIAL LOADS 316

- 10.1 Introduction, 316
- 10.2 Internal Reactions, 320
- 10.3 Stress, 326
- 10.4 Stress in an Axially Loaded Member, 328
- 10.5 Average Shear Stress, 333
- 10.6 Bearing Stress, 334
- 10.7 Problems Involving Normal, Shear, and Bearing Stress, 340
- 10.8 Allowable Stress, Factor of Safety, 348
- 10.9 Further Analysis of Axial Loads: Stresses on Oblique Sections, 355

*Sections denoted by an asterisk indicate material that can be omitted without loss of continuity.

Chapter 11	STRAIN FOR AXIAL LOADS: HOOKE'S LAW	361
11.1	Axial Strain, 362	
11.2	Tension Test and Stress–Strain Diagram, 363	
11.3	Hooke's Law, 367	
11.4	Axially Loaded Members, 371	
11.5	Statically Indeterminate Axially Loaded Members, 376	
11.6	Poisson's Ratio, 382	
11.7	Thermal Deformation; Thermally Induced Stress 383	
11.8	Additional Mechanical Properties of Materials, 388	
11.9	Strain and Stress Distributions; Saint-Venant's Principle, 391	
11.10	Stress Concentrations, 392	
11.11	Repeated Loading, Fatigue, 396	
Chapter 12	SHEAR STRESSES AND STRAINS; TORSION	399
12.1	Introduction, 399	
12.2	Shearing Stress on Planes at Right Angles, 400	
12.3	Shearing Strains, 400	
12.4	Hooke's Law for Shear, 401	
12.5	Torsion of a Circular Shaft, 402	
12.6	Further Comments on the Torsion of a Circular Shaft, 406	
12.7	Problems Involving Deformation and Stress in a Circular Shaft, 408	
12.8	Torsion Test, 413	
12.9	Power Transmission, 414	
12.10	Flange Couplings, 421	
Chapter 13	SHEAR FORCES AND BENDING MOMENTS IN BEAMS	429
13.1	Introduction, 429	
13.2	Types of Beams, 430	
13.3	Beam Reactions, 431	
13.4	Shear Forces and Bending Moments in Beams, 433	
13.5	Shear-Force and Bending-Moment Diagrams, 443	
13.6	Relations Among Loads, Shear Forces, and Bending Moments, 447	
Chapter 14	BENDING AND SHEARING STRESSES IN BEAMS	463
14.1	Introduction, 463	
14.2	Pure Bending of a Symmetrical Beam, 464	
14.3	Deformation Geometry for a Symmetrical Beam in Pure Bending, 466	
14.4	Hooke's Law: Distribution of Bending Stress, 467	
14.5	Bending Stress Formula: Flexure Formula, 468	
14.6	Elastic Section Modulus, 470	

- 14.7 Problems Involving the Bending Stress Formula, 470
- 14.8 Shearing Stress in Beams, 482
- 14.9 Horizontal Shearing Stress Formula, 484
- 14.10 Shear Flow Formula, 497
- 14.11 Design of Beams for Strength, 502
- *14.12 Residential Design Using Tabulated Values, 518

Chapter 15 DEFLECTION OF BEAMS DUE TO BENDING 543

- 15.1 Introduction, 543
- 15.2 Bending-Moment Diagram by Parts, 544
- 15.3 Moment-Area Method, 553
- 15.4 Deflection of a Cantilever Beam by the Moment-Area Method, 558
- 15.5 Deflection of the Simply Supported Beam by the Moment-Area Method, 565
- 15.6 Superposition Method, 573
- 15.7 Beam Deflections Using Computer Software, 582
- 15.8 Statically Indeterminate Beams by the Superposition Method, 590
- *15.9 Deflection of Beams by Integration, 597
- *15.10 Singularity Functions, 606

Chapter 16 COMBINED STRESSES AND MOHR'S CIRCLE 618

- 16.1 Introduction, 618
- 16.2 Axial Forces and Bending Moments, 619
- 16.3 Unsymmetrical Bending, 631
- 16.4 Eccentrically Loaded Members, 635
- 16.5 Plane Stress, 638
- 16.6 Stress Components on an Oblique Plane, 638
- 16.7 Mohr's Circle for Plane Stress, 640
- 16.8 Principal Stresses, 644
- 16.9 Maximum Shear Stress, 646
- 16.10 Axial Stress, 648
- 16.11 Biaxial Stress: Thin-Walled Pressure Vessel, 650
- 16.12 Pure Shear, 655
- 16.13 Combined Stress Problems, 656

Chapter 17 COLUMNS 663

- 17.1 Introduction, 663
- 17.2 Euler Column Formula, 665
- 17.3 Effective Length of Columns, 667
- 17.4 Further Comments on the Euler Column Formula, 668
- 17.5 Tangent Modulus Theory, 672
- 17.6 Empirical Column Formulas: Design Formulas, 673

Chapter 18 BOLTED, RIVETED, AND WELDED STRUCTURAL CONNECTIONS 683

- 18.1 Introduction, 683
- 18.2 Rivets and Bolts, 684
- 18.3 Methods of Failure for Bolted Joints, 684
- 18.4 Axially Loaded Bolted and Riveted Connections, 687
- 18.5 Shear Connections for Building Frames, 693
- 18.6 Welds, 697
- 18.7 Axially Loaded Welds, 700

Appendix 705

Answers to Even-Numbered Problems 739

Index 749

Application Sidebars

1. Significant Digits 7
2. Torque Measurement and Application 98
3. Truss Fabrication 158
4. Surface Roughness 235
5. Wood Bearings 251
6. Flat Belts 255
7. Center of Gravity 264
8. Machine-Graded Lumber 277
9. Thomas Young 319
10. Thermal Expansion 387
11. Stress Concentration 395
12. Dynamometers 418
13. Threaded Fasteners 425
14. Flexible Floors 575
15. Air-Supported Structures 654
16. Weld Testing 699

1 Basic Concepts

◆ CHAPTER OBJECTIVES ◆

This chapter reviews the basic mathematical skills necessary to the study of statics and strength of materials. Before proceeding to Chapter 2, you should be able to accomplish each of the following tasks:

- Perform numerical computations and conversions using both U.S. customary units and the International (SI) System of Units.
- Use standard trigonometric formulas in the analysis of right and oblique (nonright) triangles.
- Solve groups of two and three simultaneous linear equations.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Statics is that branch of mechanics involving the study of forces and the effect of forces on physical systems that are in equilibrium. Our reason for the study of statics is to determine all the forces that act on the system and the reactions to those forces.

Strength of materials, or mechanics of materials, establishes the connection between the external forces applied to a physical system, the resulting deflections or deformations of that system, and the intensity of the internal forces (stress) in the system. We study strength of materials to learn methods for the analysis and design of various load-bearing structures and machines.

Statics is considered in Chapters 1 through 9 and strength of materials in Chapters 10 through 18. Statics is one of the oldest branches of science. Its origins date back to the Egyptians and Babylonians, who used statics in the building of pyramids and temples. Among the earliest written records are the theories developed by Archimedes (287–212 B.C.), who explained the equilibrium of the lever and the law of buoyancy in hydrostatics. However, modern statics dates from about A.D. 1600 with the use by Simon Stevinus of the principle of the parallelogram of forces.

1.2 FUNDAMENTAL QUANTITIES: UNITS

The two fundamental quantities used in the solution of statics problems are force and length.

Force may be defined as the action of one body on another which tends to change the shape or state of motion, or both, of the other body. Aside from a simple push or pull which we can exert on a body with our hands, the force we are most familiar with is gravitational force. The gravitational force or attraction exerted by the earth on a body is the weight of the body. Other familiar forces are electrical or magnetic attraction, wind forces on a surface, automobile tire traction on the pavement, and so on.

Length is a measure of size or relative position. It is used to describe the size of a body and to locate the position of the forces that act on a body.

To describe a force we need to specify three things: magnitude, direction, and point of application. The magnitude of a force is given by a certain number of force units. The direction may be given by the angle the force makes with a selected reference axis. The point of application is the point at which the force is applied.

A length can be described by magnitude only and the magnitude is given by a certain number of length units. The magnitude of both force and length are defined by arbitrarily chosen units.

U.S. Customary Units

Engineers in the United States have commonly used the pound (lb) as the unit of force and the foot (ft) as the unit of length. The pound force is defined as the weight of a specific platinum cylinder placed at sea level and at a latitude of 45° . Other commonly used units of force are the kilopound (kip), equal to 1000 lb, and the ton, equal to 2000 lb. The foot is defined as 0.3048 meter. (See the following paragraph for the definition of meter.) Other units of length based on the foot are the mile (mi), equal to 5280 ft; the inch (in.), equal to $1/12$ ft; and the yard (yd), equal to 3 ft.

International System of Units (SI)

A modernized version of the metric system, called the International System of Units, abbreviated SI, has been adopted throughout the world. The United States has been slow to convert to the SI system. Therefore, it will be necessary for engineers to be familiar with both the SI and U.S. customary systems of units.

In the SI system the meter or metre (m) is the unit of length and the newton (N) is the unit of force. The meter was at one time defined as the distance between parallel lines marked on a bar kept at standard temperature and pressure and located near Paris, France. The latest definition is based on the wavelength of a color line in the spectrum of the gas krypton. The advantage of such a definition is that it can be reproduced at any location. The meter is 3.2808 ft. The unit of force, the newton, is a derived unit. It is based on the change in the state of motion of a standard body on which the force acts. The newton (N) is approximately two-tenths of a pound of force or, more precisely, $1 \text{ N} = 0.2248 \text{ lb}$. (The pound force is approximately $4\text{-}1/2 \text{ N}$ or, more precisely, $1 \text{ lb} = 4.4482 \text{ N}$.)

Weight and Mass

The *weight* or *force of gravity* on a body is determined from the *mass* of the body. The unit of mass is a kilogram (approximately equal to the mass of 0.001 m^3 of water) and is defined by the mass of a small platinum-iridium bar locked in an airtight vault near Paris, France.*

To find the weight W of a body in newtons (N) from the mass m in kilograms (kg), we use the equation

$$W = mg \quad (1.1)$$

where g is the acceleration due to gravity in meters per second squared (m/s^2). The acceleration varies only slightly from place to place on earth. We will use the approximation 9.81 m/s^2 . For example, to find the weight of a body with a mass of 2.5 kg, we multiply by 9.81. $W = 2.5 (9.81) = 24.5 \text{ kg (m/s}^2) = 24.5 \text{ N}$.

Multiples and submultiples of length and force commonly used are the kilometer (km), equal to 1000 m; the millimeter (mm), equal to 0.001 m; the kilonewton (kN), equal to 1000 N; and the meganewton (MN), equal to 1,000,000 N. Thus we see that the prefix milli means 0.001, or 10^{-3} , the prefix kilo means 1000, or 10^3 , and the prefix mega means 1,000,000, or 10^6 . See Table A.1 of the Appendix for other common prefixes.

1.3 SI STYLE AND USAGE

Precise rules of style and usage have been established in the SI system. Several of the rules follow.

A centered dot is used to separate units that are multiplied together. For example, for a newton · meter, the moment of force, we write $\text{N} \cdot \text{m}$. This helps avoid confusion with the millinewton, which would be written mN.

Except for the prefix kilo (k) in kilograms, prefixes should be avoided in the denominator of compound units that are answers. For example, as a measure of stress we use N/m^2 rather than N/mm^2 , to avoid having the prefix milli (m) appear in the denominator.

*The kilogram is the last scientific unit of measure defined by a physical contrivance, a single bar, rather than a constant of nature. Ongoing research is directed at defining the kilogram in terms of standards that can be duplicated anywhere. A possible definition may be based on Avogadro's number—a measure of the number of molecules present in the volume of a mole of gas (0.02241 m^3) at a fixed temperature and pressure. Researchers say that with luck the change may come within the decade.